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ABSTRACT

This paper analyzes college entrance examinations and graduation rates as indicators of the quality of education and of school systems in the South. The following implications and conclusions are discussed: (1) Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SATS) were designed to measure outcomes for students intending to continue on to higher education and thus are not representative of the entire student body. (2) The percent, characteristics, and resources of those students taking the SATs in each state are influenced by state policies and local practices. Greater expenditures are associated with higher average scores, suggesting that there are returns to investments in education. (3) Policies of state colleges and universities designed to restrict or increase access can also influence the number and composition of students taking the SAT and their aggregate scores. (4) Graduation rates measure only the retention rate of the school, not the quality of education. (5) Raising educational standards may drive some youth out of school, thus lowering graduation rates. (6) The same educational inputs do not necessarily achieve the same outputs because of differences among students. (7) It is difficult to measure actual improvement of districts and states due to the changing standards. (8) Reforms aimed at affecting the outcomes of high school students must be long term, and effects must be traced back through the entire educational system. (CG)

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EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH: Selected Indicators of Performance

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

* The Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT), originally intended to measure an individual student's aptitude for college, are increasingly being used as aggregate measures of a school system's comparative quality.

* SAT scores are strongly influenced by three factors: the percentage of high school graduates taking the test, characteristics of the populations taking the test, and states' average expenditures per pupil.

* While national average SAT scores declined throughout the seventies, the SGPB states declined less, and the region closed the gap slightly.

* The average SAT scores for the SGPB region still are below the nation's average.

* As a result of a higher percentage of low-income and minority youth taking the tests in the South and lower expenditures per pupil, adjusting for those factors raises the average ranks of SGPB states.

* The graduation rates of the states in the SGPB region are more than five percentage points lower than the national average.

* The percent of high school graduates in the region receiving their diplomas by passing the high school equivalency examination of the General Educational Development Testing Service (GED), is about five percentage points higher than the national average.

* Caution ought to be exercised in comparing SAT (and ACT) averages and graduation rates for states. If comparisons are made and used as proxies for quality of education, factors influencing scores which do not necessarily reflect "quality" should be taken into account.

This paper was prepared by Stuart A. Rosenfeld, Director of Research and Programs.

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Introduction

Each year, the College Board releases the average score of its college entrance examination, the Scholastic Aptitude Test[1]. In 1981, as in 1980, it was lower than in previous years. By then, however, concern with the quality and character of public education was mounting and the SAT scores were cited as evidence that the nation's public schools were failing. Exacerbating the problem, entering teachers scored on the low end of the declining SAT scale.

While declining SAT scores were used to indicate that public schools were not serving college bound students well, the decline in high school graduation rates indicated that schools were not adequately serving "at-risk" students very well either.[2]

In the past, low rankings for or measures of the southern states' educational systems have not been particularly detrimental to the region's economic growth. With a large proportion of the region's jobs in manufacturing, work habits and manual skills have been more important to many industries than academic achievement. In the eighties, however, the requirements for work are changing and education looms much larger in the location decisions of more businesses. Thus, rankings of states' school systems have become part of the new business climate and take on added significance.

The SAT scores were important in public policy deliberations because they were linked to productivity and economic growth and became part of the widening debate over the faltering American school system. States and regions ranked and compared average scores, and policy makers enacted and funded a wide range of education reforms aimed at improving education and intended to increase productivity and economic growth.[3] The SGPB states have been among the leaders in educational improvement.

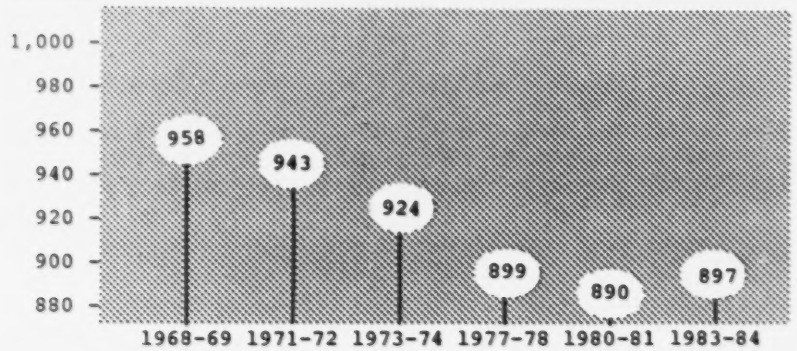
Since declining test scores were cited as evidence of failure, it has been tempting to use these same numbers to measure the effectiveness of the new investments in public education. But simply ranking outcomes or scores across time and states can lead to erroneous conclusions about the level of and changes in the quality of education. No one would consider, for instance, ranking college basketball teams on the basis of average points scored or win-loss records alone. Those who do the rankings correct, at least subjectively, for circumstances and conditions, such as the caliber of the opposition and how well a team plays. Education statistics require similar adjustments before drawing conclusions about schooling.

This issue of Strategic Indicators (a) describes changes in graduation rates and average SAT scores over time, (b) shows how the SGPB states rank nationally, (c) discusses conditions and differences among states that affect the outcome measures, and (d) shows how taking some of these factors into account alters the rankings.

SAT Scores

There are two SAT tests, one for verbal skills and one for mathematics skills. A perfect 800 score on each would total 1600. In 1967, the first time the scores were reported, the national average was 958. The national average went steadily down to a low of 890 in 1981, before starting back up slowly. In 1984 it was 897. (See Table 1.)

Table 1. AVERAGE S.A.T. SCORES (Combined Verbal and Math) U.S., 1968-69 to 1983-84.



Source: The College Board

The main point of contention over the meaning of the decline in average SAT scores has to do with who takes the tests. For example, an alternative explanation for declining college entrance test scores is that colleges were recruiting and attracting more low-income and low- and moderate-achieving students. The small decreases could be interpreted to mean that access to higher education had improved--a goal of public policy in the sixties and seventies.

Since 1971-72, state-by-state averages have been published, so that states are able to see both how their college-bound students have performed over time and how their scores compare to other states. The combined SAT scores are shown in Table 3 for three different years during a twelve year span: 1971-72; 1977-78; and 1983-84. Nationally, the SGPB states rank from 11th to 51st. Changes in the scores of SGPB states during the twelve-year period are mixed, but on the average the SGPB region outperformed the nation. The average SAT score for the SGPB region on the whole declined, but not nearly as much as the national average declined. During a period when the nation's decline was being called a national crisis, six SGPB states actually improved their average scores. Between 1977-78 and 1983-84, the SGPB average increased by four points.

There are a number of reasons for variations and trends in average SAT scores, some of which are indicative of quality of education and some of which are not. The factor with the greatest impact on scores is

the percent taking the tests. It is self-evident that if a smaller percentage of students, based on individual ability, take the test, all other things being equal, the average score would be higher than if a larger percent take the test.

Comparisons of average grade points of those taking the SATs, by state, shown in Table 2, generally provide evidence of the relationship. Despite the subjective nature of grades, mean grade points are indicative of differences among states in the academic standing and thus the achievement of those taking the tests. In Mississippi, for instance, which ranked 16th nationally on average combined SAT scores, those who took the tests had a mean grade point of 3.47. This was well above the national mean grade point, 3.04, of all those taking the tests. A more selective testing process would be expected to produce higher scores. Of the SGPB states, only three had a mean grade point below the national average.

Some recent reports are now comparing only those states where the SAT is the primary college entrance exam, and comparing those states where the ACT is the principal test separately. While this improves the measure, it does not remove all of the effects of differences in percentages or the effects of other factors.

Differences in the characteristics of test takers across states, such as income, race, and sex, also influence test scores. Variations in percent minority population, percent with family incomes below $12,000, and average expenditures per pupil are shown in Table 2. The SGPB South has a higher percentage of low-income students and minority students taking the tests. The region also has a higher proportion of women taking the tests.

Differences in states' education systems, such as resources and percentage of students enrolling in private schools, affects average SAT scores. Expenditures per pupil in the SGPB region are lower than in other regions. Unlike the previous factors, this is something over which states have some control.

Two researchers[4] have attempted to adjust state average SAT scores by statistically removing the effects of some of these factors. They were grouped roughly as (1) percent of students taking the tests, (2) characteristics of the students taking the tests (e.g., sex, race, and family income), and (3) structural characteristics of the education system (e.g., expenditures per pupil, curriculum, and percent in private schools).

Effects of Percentage of Students Taking the SAT

The percent taking the tests has a strong impact on the scores. The researchers used regression analysis to calculate the relationship between the various factors and resulting SAT scores. They then recalculated states' relative performances by ranking the difference between their actual scores and the scores expected[5] based on the percentage taking the tests and the other factors. The adjusted

rankings, controlling for the percent taking the tests, are shown in Table 4.

As a result of removing the effects of the percent taking the tests, all of the SGPB states that were originally above the national median in 1982-83 moved lower in the rankings, as shown in Table 4. These were all SGPB states in which a small percentage of students took the test because the ACT was the primary college entrance examination. The average ranking for states in the SGPB region went from 30th to 40th. Mississippi, where only three percent of the high school graduates took the SAT tests in 1982-83, dropped from 16th (unadjusted) to 48th (adjusted). Alabama, where six percent took the test, dropped from 26th to 46th for the same year.

The percent taking the SATs also affected changes over time, as shown in Table 3. All six SGPB states that showed increases in their average scores between 1971-72 and 1983-84 had a corresponding decrease in the percent taking the test. The two states with the largest increases in average SATs had the largest reductions in the percent taking the test. Conversely, Florida, with the largest decrease in scores, the percent taking the tests increased from 28 percent in 1971-72 to 41 percent in 1983-84. The reason for the strong effect of percent taking the tests is that a smaller percent generally means that those taking the tests were higher-achieving students. The rank of the mean gradepoint of test takers by state were highly correlated with the rank of the average SAT scores (significant with less than 1% error).

Effects of Characteristics of Students Taking the SATs

A further adjustment was made to take into account the composition of the student population taking the test. For reasons too complex to be discussed in this paper,[6] females have consistently scored lower than males in the math SAT and low-income youth and minorities have scored lower than average on both tests.

Together, the compositional factors explain much of the remaining regional differences in average SAT scores. SGPB states with low average scores--North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia--also had the highest percentages of low-income youth taking the tests, as shown in Table 2.

Statistically eliminating effects of differences in family income, sex, and racial composition in addition to the percent taking the test, the SGPB states moved higher in the rankings. Mississippi moved up to a tie for 30th; Alabama moved up to 24th; Florida moved from a tie for 30th to a tie for 20th; and North Carolina rose from 47th to 30th. The average ranking of the SGPB states, which had dropped from 30th to 40th when adjusted for the percent taking the tests, rose back up to 33rd with students' characteristics taken into account.

Effects of Expenditures per Pupil

Of the school/structural characteristics, mean years devoted to academic coursework, extent of private school enrollment, and

expenditures per pupil, only the average expenditures per pupil [7] had any significant effect on scores. Controlling for this variable raised the rankings of the SGPB states. In Alabama for example, if the effects of the percent taking the test, the sex, race, and income of those taking the tests, and expenditures per pupil on education are removed, the state would rank 11th nationally.[8]

Expenditures per pupil are one factor that is under the control of state and local government and is often used as a proxy for quality of education. This analysis shows a significant correlation between expenditure levels and outcomes, suggesting that raising expenditures could raise SAT scores.

It is obvious from the many ways that states can be ranked that using standardized tests to judge a state's or a district's education system can be misleading. States and districts have different levels of resources, different student bodies, and different test-taking policies. There are methods of sorting out the contributions of different factors more effectively to test results in order to isolate the impact of the education itself. The research cited here accounts for a large proportion of the variation in scores among states, but it still should be used with a great deal of caution.

Graduation Rates

One measure of the success of states' education systems is the proportion of students entering ninth grade who graduate. Fewer and fewer jobs are available without the high school diploma, yet a significant number of youth are not completing high school. The national graduation rate in 1984 was 73.9 percent, down from 77.2 percent twelve years earlier. The average graduation rate in the SGPB states was nearly six percentage points below the national average. Only Arkansas, Oklahoma and Virginia had rates above the average. While the national average dropped over the last decade, however, the record among most southern states improved. The rates increased in nine of the 13 SGPB states. (See Table 5.)

Even a simple statistic such as graduation rate, however, is subject to error, since individual students are not tracked. The rates do not take into account transfers among states. If there is a net immigration of high school students into a state or region, graduation rates would be inflated, since they are calculated by comparing 9th grade enrollments with twelfth grade graduations. The rates also do not reflect those who graduate later by taking the GED, an increasingly common method for students whose needs are not met by the schools. Further, some of the same compositional and structural factors used in the SAT analysis may affect graduation rates. That analysis, however, has not been performed.

According to the most recent state-by-state data (1979-80), GED recipients comprise a much larger share of all high school graduates in the South than in the nation as a whole. Most of these GED recipients

are not included in the published tables of numbers graduating from high school. In 1979-80, in Kentucky, 27 percent graduated by passing the GED and in Florida 26, percent graduated the same way. (See Table 6.) Individuals completing their high school requirements by passing the GED generally are older than the typical student, and therefore the rates of GED completion cannot simply be combined with high school graduation rates for the purpose of state-by-state comparisons.

Graduation rates are an important indicator of public education, not necessarily as a measure of comparative performance but to identify areas of concern. Educators needs to know who is not completing school and why; a low graduation rate indicates a need to dig deeper and investigate causes.

Implications and Conclusions

Both measures--college entrance examination scores and graduation rates--have weaknesses as indicators of the quality of education of school systems. The SAT, for example, measures only the outcomes for those students intending to go on to higher education. It was never intended to be used as an aggregate measure; it was designed to assess an individual's chances for success in higher education. The SAT is given only to students on request who wish to apply to colleges requiring the test and is not representative of the achievement of the entire student body.

The regression analyses performed by Powell and Steelman show the importance of the percent, characteristics, and resources of those students taking the SATs in each state. These factors can be influenced by state policies and local practices. For example, the level and allocation of resources are determined by budget decisions and state policies. The analysis indicates that greater expenditures are associated with higher average scores, suggesting that there are returns to investments in education.

The number and composition of students taking the test also can be influenced by policies, such as requirements of states' colleges and universities and the quality of its two-year system, and by attitudes of teachers and counselors. For example, a strong state two-year technical college system, not requiring entrance examinations, would attract students who might take the SAT in another state without a good two-year system. Or marginal college candidates can simply be discouraged from taking the tests. Reducing the size of the college track in the high schools probably would lead to higher SAT scores. Restricting tuition assistance programs, thereby eliminating opportunities for some low- and middle-income students, might have a similar impact.

Thus, policies designed to restrict access to college might lead to higher SAT scores and policies to increase access to college--without addressing the conditions that have led to lower test scores for certain segments of the population--might result in lower SAT scores. This poses a serious dilemma. With increasing pressure to move up in the rankings,

scores can be raised in ways other than by improving the state's overall quality of education.

At the other end of the spectrum are those who do not even graduate, and changes in the rates of graduation are one indicator of the extent to which states are better serving these students. Graduation rates, however, measure only the retention rates of schools, not the quality of education. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, the rates do not take into account interstate migration patterns or the growing number of students completing school by taking the GED later.

Policy makers face another potential dilemma: raising educational standards may, at the same time, drive youth out of school who cannot meet them, which would lower graduation rates.

Comparing average statistics is at best a rough yardstick for comparing the educational performance of schools, districts, or states. Conditions vary from place to place. All youth do not begin school with the same advantages. Thus, the same educational inputs should not be expected to achieve the same outcomes everywhere. Most states recognize these differences and have developed sophisticated systems for weighting the needs of students and locations to determine the allocation of state funds. These differences among students, communities, and states ought to be given the same consideration when comparing educational performance. Changes over time are a more appropriate measure of improvement, but they, too, can be influenced by conditions outside the control of the public schools, such as a state university changing its policy and no longer requiring the SATs.

Furthermore, in trying to advance in the rankings, districts and states are chasing a moving target. If all are making efforts to improve, the mean of whatever measure is used ought to be continually increasing. Therefore, relative position may be difficult to change. What is more important is that improvements take place and that the dispersion--the differences among districts and states--is reduced.

Last, any reforms aimed at affecting the outcomes for high school students must be long term. Conditions that lead to higher SAT scores, higher graduation rates, or an increase in any other outcome evaluated at the end of formal public schooling can be traced back through the entire 13 years in the system. Thus, it is much too soon to expect investments in education to show up in the latter years of high school.

Notes

[1] Some schools use the American College Testing Program (ACT) and in some of the SGPB states the ACT is the primary college entrance examination. In the South, Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Tennessee use the ACT predominantly. Recent ACT scores are given in Table 7 but are not analyzed in this paper.

[2] In addition to average SAT scores and graduation rates, the test scores of the National Assessment of Educational Progress are used to measure changes over time. The sample size has been too small to allow state-by-state comparisons and at present statistics are disaggregated only down to the region. While the South's score historically has been lower than other regions', over the past ten years it has made the greatest gains and has surpassed some other regions on some of the measures.

[3] Curiously, the decline in SAT scores had a reverse effect on federal expenditures. Some federal policy makers asserted that the correspondence between the drop in test scores and the increase in federal expenditures on education in the seventies suggested a negative return on investment, and that federal education funds ought to be reduced.

[4] Brian Powell and Lala Carr Steelman. "Variations in State SAT Performance: Meaningful or Misleading?", Harvard Educational Review 54(November 1984) pp 389-412.

[5] Since the numbers of graduates for the 1983-84 school year are not yet available, projections for that year by Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education in Boulder, Colorado, and published as High School Graduates: Projections for the Fifty States 1982-2000 were used.

[6] Evidence indicates that differences in average scores due to ascriptive characteristics of students have been due in large part to differences in in-school and out-of-school experiences.

[7] This analysis, which was not included in the Harvard Educational Review article, was conducted by Dr. Brian Powell of Indiana University for the Southern Growth Policies Board. Unfortunately, the only data available to measure the effect of this factor are the state averages for all students, not the average expenditures per pupil taking the tests. Thus, the effect of expenditures on SAT scores is based on the assumption that the average expenditures per pupil for the state are representative of average expenditures on those taking the tests.

[8] Once expenditures per pupil are introduced into the regression equation, the median income of test takers is no longer statistically significant.

Table 2. SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THOSE TAKING S.A.T. TESTS, 1983-84, SGPB South and U.S.

State	Estimated Grade Point Average	Percent Minority	Percent With Family Income Below $12,000	Current Expenditures Per Pupil 1982-83
Alabama	3.25	21.6	12.3	$ 2177
Arkansas	3.36	10.2	8.9	1971
Florida	3.04	17.7	13.0	2680
Georgia	3.02	24.7	16.5	2169
Kentucky	3.36	6.5	7.0	2100
Louisiana	3.22	20.0	9.3	2739
Mississippi	3.47	19.6	11.1	1849
North Carolina	3.08	22.0	17.6	2162
Oklahoma	3.37	10.9	5.9	2805
Puerto Rico	3.25	91.9	31.9	----
South Carolina	2.95	26.5	20.6	2017
Tennessee	3.30	9.9	8.0	2027
Texas	3.11	25.9	11.0	2731
Virginia	3.01	18.9	11.0	2620
SGPB South*	3.07	21.8	13.3	----
Non-SGPB South	3.00	19.0	12.3	----
U.S.*	3.04	19.7	12.5	2948

*Excludes Puerto Rico

Source: College-Bound Seniors, 1984, The College Board

Table 3. TRENDS IN AVERAGE S.A.T. SCORES, PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES TAKING TEST, AND NATIONAL RANK: SGPB South and U.S., 1971-72, 1977-78, and 1983-84.

		1971-72	1977-78	1983-84	Percent Change, 1971 - 1983
ALABAMA:	S.A.T. score	860	907	970	+12.8%
	Percent tested	9.8%	6.1%	6.5%	
	National Rank	46	31	25	
ARKANSAS:	S.A.T. score	997	994	1003	+ 0.6%
	Percent tested	7.5%	4.6%	5.2%	
	National Rank	16	16	14	
FLORIDA:	S.A.T. score	941	889	890	- 5.4%
	Percent tested	27.8%	34.0%	41.1%	
	National Rank	32	42	41	
GEORGIA:	S.A.T. score	834	818	822	- 1.4%
	Percent tested	57.0%	48.2%	51.4%	
	National Rank	49	48	50	
KENTUCKY:	S.A.T. score	986	983	997	+ 1.1%
	Percent tested	10.6%	6.8%	7.7%	
	National Rank	20	19	15	
LOUISIANA:	S.A.T. score	940	965	980	+ 4.3%
	Percent tested	8.7%	5.2%	6.1%	
	National Rank	33	25	20	
MISSISSIPPI:	S.A.T. score	851	981	992	+16.6%
	Percent tested	6.3%	2.7%	3.1%	
	National Rank	47	20	16	
N. CAROLINA:	S.A.T. score	849	814	827	- 2.8%
	Percent tested	48.2%	47.9%	48.3%	
	National Rank	48	49	48	
OKLAHOMA:	S.A.T. score	1017	1010	1009	- 0.8%
	Percent tested	7.6%	5.0%	5.7%	
	National Rank	11	12	11.5	
PUERTO RICO:	S.A.T. score	-	770	752	-
	Percent tested	-	6.6%	7.4%	-
S. CAROLINA:	S.A.T. score	823	787	803	- 2.4%
	Percent tested	51.0%	46.4%	50.4%	
	National Rank	50	50	51	
TENNESSEE:	S.A.T. score	987	991	1009	+ 2.2%
	Percent tested	10.1%	8.1%	9.1%	
	National Rank	19	17	11.5	
TEXAS:	S.A.T. score	921	885	866	- 6.0%
	Percent tested	32.2%	29.0%	35.0%	
	National Rank	39.5	44	46	
VIRGINIA:	S.A.T. score	919	890	894	- 2.7%
	Percent tested	57.7%	50.5%	54.4%	
	National Rank	44	41	38	
*SGPB South:	S.A.T. score	893	864	868	- 2.8%
	Percent tested	-	27.0%	29.3%	
U.S.A.:	S.A.T. score	936	897	897	- 4.2%
	Percent tested	-	31.5%	32.4%	

Sources: Data provided by The College Board, The National Center for Education Statistics, and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education.

*Does not include Puerto Rico.

Table 5. HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION RATES AND RATIO TO U.S. AVERAGE, SGPB South and U.S., 1972 and 1974.

	1972		1984		Change in Ratio, 1972 to 1984
	Graduation Rate	Ratio to U.S. Average	Graduation Rate	Ratio to U.S. Average	
Alabama	65.4	0.85	67.4	0.91	+0.06
Arkansas	68.9	0.89	75.1	1.02	+0.13
Florida	72.1	0.93	65.5	0.89	-0.04
Georgia	64.8	0.84	65.5	0.89	+0.05
Kentucky	70.4	0.91	68.4	0.93	+0.02
Louisiana	66.5	0.86	57.2	0.77	-0.09
Mississippi	57.6	0.75	63.7	0.86	+0.11
N. Carolina	68.6	0.89	69.3	0.94	+0.05
Oklahoma	79.3	1.03	79.6	1.08	+0.05
S. Carolina	69.2	0.90	66.2	0.89	-0.01
Tennessee	72.4	0.94	65.1	0.88	-0.06
Texas	70.2	0.91	69.4	0.94	+0.03
Virginia	76.4	0.99	75.7	1.02	+0.03
SGPB South	-	-	68.2	-	-
U.S.	77.2	1.00	73.9	1.00	-

Source: Education Week, January 18, 1984, and conversations with analysts at the National Center for Education Statistics.

Table 4. EFFECT ON NATIONAL RANKINGS OF CONTROLLING FOR PERCENT OF STUDENTS TAKING S.A.T. TEST, FOR CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS, AND FOR PER-PUPIL EXPENDITURES, SGPB South and U.S., 1982-83.

				ADJUSTED RANKINGS		
STATE	Average S.A.T.	Percent Taking Test	Rank	Adjusted for Percent Taking Test	Adjusted for Percent and Characteristics of Students	Adjusted for Percent, Characteristics, and Expenditures Per Pupil
Alabama	964	6	26	46	24	11
Arkansas	999	4	12.5	42	45	39
Florida	889	39	38.5	30.5	20.5	21
Georgia	823	51	49	49	36	24
Kentucky	985	6	17	40.5	47	41
Louisiana	975	5	22.5	45	37.5	34
Mississippi	988	3	16	48	30.5	17.5
North Carolina	827	47	48	47	30.5	24
Oklahoma	1001	5	11	37	44	41
South Carolina	790	48	50	50	41	31
Tennessee	999	9	12.5	19	17	7
Texas	868	32	45	44	48	47
Virginia	888	52	40.5	21.5	8.5	6
SGPB South			30	40	33	26

Source: Powell and Steelman, Harvard Educational Review, plus additional analysis by Dr. Brian Powell.

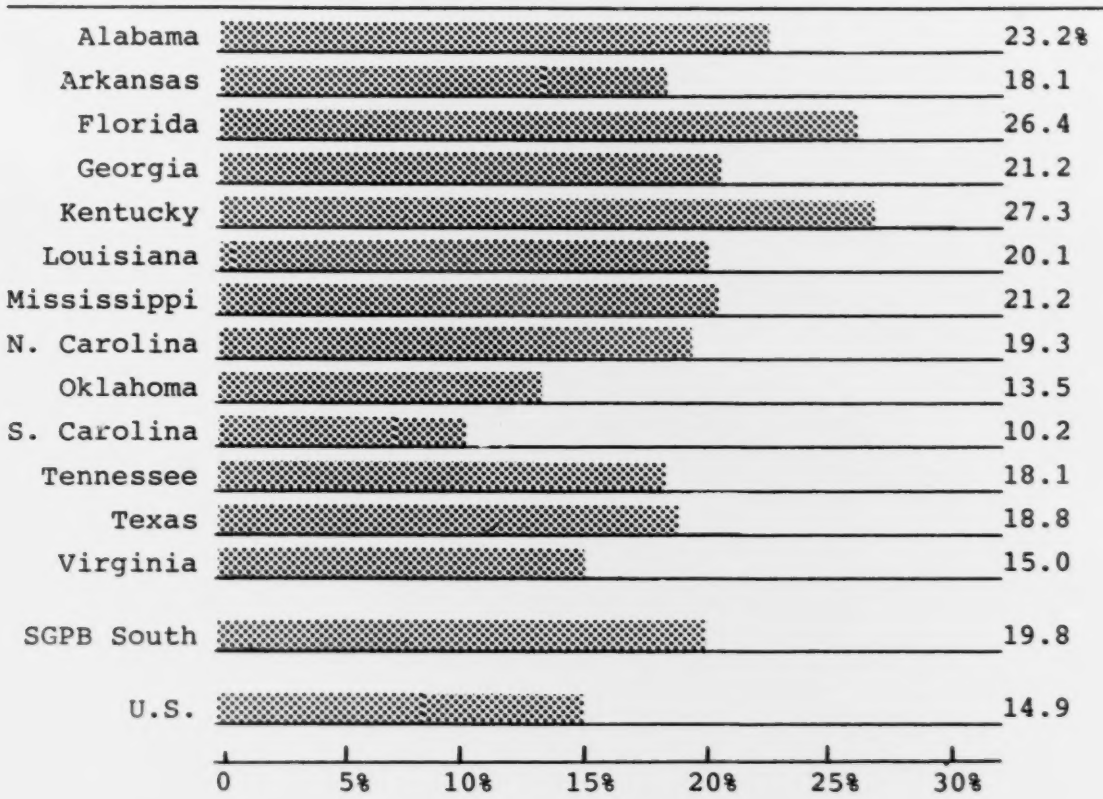
Table 7. SCORES AND RANKS FOR A.C.T. TESTS, SGPB South, 1982 and 1984.

State	1982 Average Score	1982 Percent Taking Test	1984 Average Score	1984 Percent Taking Test	Rank* 1984
Alabama	17.2	55.3	17.4	58.7	25.5
Arkansas	17.7	56.3	17.6	61.4	22.5
Kentucky	17.5	53.7	17.9	62.0	19.5
Louisiana	16.7	60.8	16.6	77.9	27
Mississippi	15.5	74.4	15.6	86.2	28
Oklahoma	17.6	51.4	17.6	58.7	22.5
Tennessee	17.5	56.3	17.7	64.5	21
U.S.	18.4	----	18.5	----	----

*Rank among 28 states which emphasize A.C.T.

Source: Education Week, January 9, 1985.

Table 6. G.E.D. RECIPIENTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES, SGPB South and U.S., 1979-80.



Source: Data provided by National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Education Department, February 7, 1985.

LGAC MEMBERS

Alabama League of Municipalities
Arkansas Municipal League
Florida League of Cities
Georgia Municipal Association
Kentucky Municipal Association
Mississippi Municipal Association
Municipal Association of South Carolina
North Carolina Association of County Commissioners
North Carolina League of Municipalities
Oklahoma Municipal League
State Association of County Commissioners of Florida
Virginia Municipal League

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS

LEVEL 4

Knight-Ridder Newspapers, Inc. (FL)
Northern Telecom (NC)

LEVEL 3

Alabama Power Company
AmSouth Bank (AL)
Bank of Oklahoma
Cities Service Oil & Gas Corp. (OK)
First American Corporation (TN)
First Atlanta Corporation (GA)
First Tennessee Banks
Freeport-McMoran, Inc. (LA)
Georgia Power Company
Getty Refining & Marketing Co. (OK)
Imperial Industries, Inc. (FL)
Kerr-McGee Corporation (OK)
MAPCO, Inc. (OK)
New Orleans Public Service (LA)
North Carolina National Bank
Oklahoma Gas & Electric Co.
Piedmont Natural Gas (NC)
Phillips Petroleum (OK)
Public Service Company of Oklahoma
R.J. Reynolds Industries, Inc. (NC)
Ryder Systems, Inc. (FL)
South Central Bell (AL)
Southeast Banking Corporation (FL)
Southern Bell (GA)
Southwestern Bell Telephone Co. (OK)
Sun Company, Inc. (OK)
Tampa Electric Company (FL)
Tennessee Valley Authority (TN)
Travenol Laboratories (IL)
U.S. Sugar Corporation (FL)
Vulcan Materials Company (AL)
Williams Companies (OK)

LEVEL 2

Broward Community College (FL)
Florida A & M University
Pensacola Junior College (FL)
Port of Lake Charles (LA)
Port of New Orleans (LA)
South Carolina Ports Authority
Tulane University (LA)
University of Alabama in Birmingham
Wake Forest University (NC)

LEVEL 1

Alabama Foreign Trade
Auburn University (AL)
Auburn University at Montgomery (AL)
Big Sandy Area Development District (KY)
Blue Cross/Blue Shield (OK)
Central Savannah River Area Planning Association (GA)
Charleston Trident Chamber of Commerce (SC)
Commonwealth of Puerto Rico Planning Board
Community Development Foundation (MS)
Daytona Beach Community College (FL)
East Carolina University Regional Development Center (NC)
Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University (FL)
Gaston County Economic Development Commission (NC)
Georgia Institute of Technology
Georgia World Congress Institute
Governors' Center, Duke Univresity (NC)
Greater Macon Chamber of Commerce (GA)
Hillsborough Community College (FL)
Itawamba Junior College (MS)
John C. Calhoun State Community College (AL)
Louisiana State University
MDC, Inc. (NC)
Metropolitan Tulsa Chamber of Commerce (OK)
Miami-Dade Community College (FL)
Mississippi Delta Junior College
Northeast Louisiana University
Northwest Louisiana State University
Northern Kentucky University
Old Dominion University (VA)
Southeastern Public Education Program (GA)
Southern Center for International Studies (GA)
Southern Forest Institute (GA)
Southern Group of State Foresters (LA)
Southern Rural Development Ctr. (MS)
Southern Technical Institute (GA)
Tennessee Business Roundtable
University of Alabama, Department of External Affairs
University of Alabama System
University of Arkansas at Little Rock
University of Central Florida
University of Georgia
University of Georgia, Cooperative Extension Division
University of Georgia, Dept. of Business Administration
University of Louisville (KY)
University of Miami (FL)
University of South Florida
University of South Carolina
Valencia Community College (FL)
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Western Kentucky University

For information about Associate Membership, contact Andi Reynolds (919) 549-8167.